DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 159 154 SP 013 019

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TITLE Collaboration: A Review, Synthesis, and Analysis of the Literature and Research.
INSTITUTION Florida State Dept. of Education, Tallahassee.
PUB DATE 77
NOTE 99p.
AVAILABLE FROM Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida 32304 (free)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$4.67 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Cooperation; Educational Anthropology; Educational Improvement; Educational Objectives; *Governance; Interinstitutional Cooperation; *Literature Reviews; *Teacher Centers; Teamwork

ABSTRACT

A discussion of the Teacher Education Center Act in Florida is presented within the framework of historical collaboration between different components united to achieve mutual objectives. The basic problems facing successful organization of teacher centers are seen as threefold: institutions of higher education believe that they hold the primary leadership role because of their historic prominence; teachers believe they should be the primary collaborators because of their practical experience and knowledge; and school administrators feel that their responsiblility for the accountability of what happens means they should have the primary role. This paper reviews and synthesizes the literature dealing with collaboration. Additionally, it explains the development of the collaborative effort in teacher education. The stated purpose of this study is to improve an understanding of collaboration and of the importance of it in the developmental history of teacher education with the aim of assisting in the evaluation of cooperative effort in teacher education centers. (JD)

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COLLABORATION: A REVIEW, SYNTHESIS, AND ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

With Applications for
TEACHER EDUCATION CENTERS

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1977

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A FRAME OF REFERENCE

Collaboration: A Definition

Collaboration is an active process practiced usually by voluntary associates who would not normally choose to work together except in situations where mutual benefit can be expected through the collaborative association. The associates represent organizations working toward objectives which benefit the new collaboration, but more importantly benefit each of the component organizations. Each component part views each other component part as a necessary entity in reaching the mutually held objective.

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INTRODUCTION

The Teacher Education Center Act of 1973, as amended, (Florida Statutes 231.600 - 231.611) was the enabling legislation which provided for the development of teacher education centers in Florida. That act, as well as other legislation and the Attorney General's opinion, that "teacher education centers should be . . . in full operation by June 30, 1979, and . . . all the school districts should be involved or participating in such centers by that date" (June 29, 1977), has encouraged the development of 22 Florida centers (as of September 1977).

The goal of the Florida legislation is to improve instruction. This goal is to be accomplished through the "collaboration" of teachers, administrators, university and college personnel. The mission of the centers is the reform of teacher education and concomitantly the improvement of education; the means to accomplish the mission is through collaboration.

Since the popular literature's criticism of education in the 1960s, the concern for cooperation between all the components of teacher education has increased. The early and mid-sixties produced a stream of criticisms about the teacher's inability to handle the myriad problems which were met at the classroom door. Cries of accountability, increased community involvement in determining educational goals, competency/performance-based testing for teachers and students, teacher militancy, and reform were echoed from the public school classrooms to

the campuses of colleges and universities. It became increasingly clear to educators that the problems were too large to handle alone. B. O. Smith in Teachers for the Real World encouraged the consideration of complexes in which all those interested in education could combine their expertise to solve its multitude of problems.

Since Smith's book in 1969 the United States Office of Education has increased its efforts in studying alternatives for collaborative arrangements. Many commissions, committees, and task forces have been appointed to study the possibilities. Pilot renewal sites and teacher education centers have been established, and in 1976 the Congress passed the first federal legislation establishing funding for teacher education centers (Public Law 94-482, Education Amendments of 1976).

The concern for finding a successful collaborative governance mode for meeting the multiplying needs of education continues today at an accelerated pace. The USOE will establish new teacher center pilots when Congress finally allocates the funding late in 1977. Meetings, commissions, committees, and task forces are continuing through the support of the Office of Education and other public and private agencies. Florida and other states are attempting to fulfill the goals of their legislation.

To meet the goal of reform, successful collaboration must be established. Equality (parity) must exist between all the participants in the collaborative effort. Establishing collaboration is an extremely difficult task. However, until successful collaborative governance of teacher education centers is obtained, it will be

impossible to evaluate the centers' ability to reach the goal of improved instruction. Collaboration is the tool, according to the Florida legislation, which will enable the centers to meet their mission. Until collaboration is more thoroughly understood and the centers are evaluated in terms of their collaborative effort, it will be impossible to judge if teacher education centers, as legislated, are meeting the goal of educational reform.

This paper is an attempt to review and synthesize the literature dealing with collaboration. Additionally, it explains the development of the collaborative effort in teacher education. An understanding of collaboration and of the importance of it in the developmental history of teacher education will assist in the evaluation of the collaborative effort of teacher education centers in Florida and elsewhere.

The term collaboration is not specifically defined in the study. Instead it is discussed as presented in the literature of anthropology/sociology, philosophy, psychology, business/management, political science, religion, and education. In the broad sense the definitions of parity, cooperation, problem solving, bargaining, shared decision making, consortia, cooperatives and collaboration, as they are used interchangeably in these disciplines, are remarkably similar. However, in their specific definitional senses they differ, often to such a degree that they become contradictory. Therefore, this study has not attempted to develop a specific definition of collaboration, but rather to draw together definitions as presented in the literature of the disciplines.

The postulates, likewise, are a synthesis developed from a review of the literature as it deals with parity, cooperation, problem solving, bargaining,shared decision making, consortia, cooperatives, and collaboration. Their function is to synthesize the variety of approaches toward working together, and to condense these ideas into a series of elements which, according to the literature, must be present in successful collaboration. In a functional sense the postulates become the definition of collaboration.

Some of the postulates have been extensively discussed in the literature of educational cooperative relationships (commonality of goals, commitment to collaboration, clear concept of roles, resource reallocation), others have been introduced but not developed (equality of membership, innovation, understanding of benefits). The literature outside of education has examined several of the postulates (understanding of prehistory, design of collaborative settings, careful appointment of director and staff, conflict resolution mechanism, importance of an external critic). None of this literature outside of education, however, has specifically addressed collaboration, but rather has discussed parity, cooperation, problem solving, or shared decision making. Finally, other postulates address issues which, as far as this study has found, have never been discussed in the broad or specific sense of collaboration or other similar areas (theory Y as a basic assumption, similarity of orientation, total involvement of all components).

COLLABORATION

Definition.

Support for collaboration (in some instances referred to as cooperation) as the primary mode of governance and the principal means of acquiring knowledge can be found in the works of well known anthropologists, philosophers and educators. Most agree that cooperation is one of the most important abilities of the human species and the only way in which knowledge can be acquired and transmitted. And, therefore, cooperation is the only means by which knowledge can exist. Without cooperation humans relegate themselves to the animal world, a world where symbols are non-existent and communication of knowledge is impossible.

"Cooperative behavior in exploiting the environment and solving problems" and "regularized food sharing" are the two principal points of uniqueness separating humans from the animal kingdom, according to anthropologist Ernest Becker (1962, p. 12). Humans, according to Becker, are the only animals able to assign meaning to things via symbols. The symbols, however, are only meaningful when they are expressed or communicated. Before the symbols are agreed upon by at least two humans they have no social significance and they are uncommunicable. One animal, therefore, has to link his/her symbol

making ability with another before there can be meaning. Accordingly, one might change the old saying to: "Two heads are needed for one" (p. 22).

Philosophical support for collaborative involvement in generating and communicating knowledge is found in Hegelian notions of knowledge (Hegel, 1929) and phenomenological interpretations of how we know (e.g. Merleau-Ponty, 1962). Knowledge, according to these philosophers, is not interpreted as a singular or universally accepted reality, but rather knowledge is interpreted as having no final reality, no automatic process for arriving at that reality. Facts are contingent upon the person's individual view of the world. Knowledge, therefore, is a process of revising previous interpretations.

This "dialectical" process, an irregular movement between understanding where a synthesis of conflicting views is obtained by playing off competing interpretations (Fox, 1976, p. 5), is necessary for the generation of knowledge. Concomitantly, this process is impossible without the collaboration of individuals.

The most prominent philosopher of education in the twentieth century is John Dewey. Dewey based much of his educational writing on the "holistic" principle he believed that to encourage intelligence, education must bring together the disciplines. When Dewey dealt with a problem of philosophic dualism he did not adopt only one side, but rather he showed the partiality of each of the viewpoints by relating them to an inclusive framework (Scheffler, 1966, p. 97). Dewey's use of philosophic terms interaction, transition, situation reveal his holistic view and place him in agreement with Hegelian and phenom-

enological views of the acquisition of knowledge.

Anthropologists agree with Dewey, Hegel, and phenomenological philosophers that each individual has a different view of the world (Becker, 1962, p. 52).Charles Silberman (1970) acknowledges his agreement with Peter Drucker's warnings (1969) in The Age of Discontinuity.

> Almost everybody . . . speaks his own language and uses his own jargon. But no one in this society, least of all the great majority who work in large organizations, is productive within his own specialty alone. Everyone depends on somebody else . . . to make his output truly effective, to convert his information into knowledge, to turn his efforts into results. (p. 382)

Humans, according to Maslow, strive for self-actualization after lower needs (physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem) have been met. A self-actualized person has reached potentiality when the person is doing that for which he/she is suited (1970, p. 46). However, a person must first meet the societal needs of belongingness and esteem. Likewise, the person can only reach potentiality if others are helping "to make his output truly effective." Therefore, theories of motivation also rely on the principal of collaboration. Without collaboration, humans cannot meet the basic needs nor strive for the supreme need, self-actualization.

Anthropologists agree that humans cannot survive alone. Humans, according to Becker, are the only animals who see themselves as objects. And as an object they can only understand themselves in relationship to other objects. "Consciousness is fundamentally a social experience"

(1962, p. 39). Dewey furthers this belief by indicating "that all education proceeds by the participation of the individual in the social consciousness of the race" (1897, p. 19).

In Reconstruction in Philosophy (1920), Dewey claims:

> What is needed [in the study of philosophy] is specific inquiries into a multitude of specific structures and interactions. Not only does the solemn reiteration of categories of individual and organic or social whole not further these definite and detailed inquiries but it checks them. It detains thought within pompous and sonorous generalities wherein controversy is as inevitable as it is incapable of solution. (pp. 198-199)

Dewey is telling us, therefore, that to avoid the end of all inquiry we must examine a multitude of different world views. This, accordingly, is the only way to advance knowledge and education through the societal interchange.

Nearly three quarters of a century after Dewey professed these views, Silberman reiterated them in Crisis in the Classroom. There is, according to Silberman, a growing need for wisdom, for versatility of judgments, and for communication (1970, p. 382).

Political theorist Matthew Tuite agrees with Silberman's contention and furthers it by including organization awareness. Tuite claims, "There is a growing interdependence among organizations and an increasing awareness in organizations of their openness to environment" (1972, p. v).

In 1969 Drucker explained this increasing awareness of environ-

mental openness. In the past, Drucker tells us, manual workers and physical resources were at the base of the production system. Today, knowledge workers are the base, managers no longer have control over the resources of production. Accordingly, authority no longer assures legitimacy. Further, according to Drucker, we are living in an age of uncertainty. There are more and more choices (Alvin Toffler (1970) in Future Shock coined the word overchoice) and less and less certainty about which choice to make. Concomitantly, we must acknowledge the interdependence of organizations; every event in one area has an effect on an event in another area. Finally, to combat these changes, Drucker tells us, we are forming artifical systems (man-made) which can be easily adapted and changed.

Another political theorist Manfred Halpern (1969) calls this the revolution of change and "modernization" (p. 57). He says it is history's first world-wide revolution. For the first time, according to Halpern, all vestiges of life are being "rendered incoherent." Links and connections are being destroyed between "individuals, groups and concepts which give men capacity to cope with continuity and change, collaboration and conflict and justice" (p. 58). Accordingly, Halpern believes this breaking of connections leaves us incapacitated to deal with the basic social issues of life. Dealing with the resulting "incoherence" is our greatest challenge. Halpern contends there are only two alternatives: (1) we can live with the incoherence and apathy and violence which accompany it, or (2) we can attempt to creatively deal with the breaking of understood connections.

In order to perceive the severed connections, according to

Halpern, one must first understand the connections. These connections are links between individuals, groups, and concepts that create and shape human capacity to deal with the five central issues of all human relationships:

> How do men bind each other in collaboration yet free each other for conflict from opposing positions; to assure continuity in their relationship with each other yet allow for change in the balance of costs and benefits in their relationship; and thus produce justice? (pp. 58-59)

Anthropologist Solon Kimbal (1974) agrees that the need to collaborate appears when there is a threat from the outside. He also maintains that collaboration can arise from the identification of a common problem. A third way in which the need to collaborate may be felt is a combination of the threat and the need to investigate the problem (p. 40).

Oron South (1974) tells us that "it is difficult to use old organization forms to contain new settings" (p. 49). South and Seymour Sarason (1971) agree that the creation of new settings is extremely important if we are to learn to deal with each other in collaborative arrangements which will allow for change and justice.

In 1899 John Dewey provided a key philosophical support base for collaborative arrangements in education.

> The range of outlook [of the school] needs to be enlarged [from individual to societal]. What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for its children. . . All that society

has accomplished for itself is put, through the agency of the school, at the disposal of its future members. . . .(p. 34)

Key Terminology Used in Definitions of Collaboration.

A review of the terminology which appears in the definitions of the word collaboration indicates two basic areas of concern within the literature. Also evident is the overlap between these same areas in many of the definitions.

Sharing: The first area of concern is sharing. This concern is evidenced particularly in the literature of educational collaboration. The sharing involves a variety of different things: decision making, responsibilities, evaluation, accountability, resources, and planning.

Also included within the notion of sharing is "voluntary association." This association may be brought about from pressure from the outside, the identification of a common problem, or the combination of the two. However, many definitions, particularly in the field of education, insist that this association must be voluntary if there is to be collaboration.

Likewise, included within this notion of sharing is the understanding that each of the components in the collaborative arrangement maintains its own identity and independence. However, the definitions agree that a common goal or objective is necessary in collaborative arrangements.

A good summary definition expressing the concerns of sharing was given in Research on Collaboration in Teacher Education by William H. Drummond and M. Daniel Baker in 1974.

> Collaboration is a term used to describe a voluntary association between two or more organizations in which agents or representatives of each work together to achieve some separately held and some commonly held objectives. Collaboration involves some sharing of planning, decision-making, and resource utilization. Each organization in a collaborative venture maintains its own organizational independence and identity. Normally, an organization enters a collaborative venture only after its leaders realize that the organization cannot achieve what it wants to achieve, either as well or at all, by itself. (p. 6)

The other area of concern within the definitions of collaboration is the notion of working with the enemy. A majority of the definitions, particularly outside the field of educational collaboration, indicate a concern with this issue. Some express it without the use of the word enemy: "differing vantage points and differing modes of interpretation" (Greene, 1974, p. 93), "dialogue across the distances that divide us" (p. 95), "groups that normally do not join in united efforts" (Kimball, 1974, p. 37), "the stranger" (Schutz, 1964), and "an active process. . .which includes the possibility of conflict" (South, 1974, p. 48).

Those definitions which use the word "enemy" stress the importance of that notion to the understanding of collaboration. "It [collaboration] was meant to include both the concept of mutuality of effort and the notion of working with the enemy" (Drummond, 1974,

p. 3). Kimball (1974) cites the Webster International Dictionary definition: "a collaborationist is one who works with the enemy" (p. 35). Likewise, he discusses the importance of understanding the concept of natural enemies when taling about collaboration. According to Kimball, those who are in subordinate positions and can be exploited are so classified. Therefore, he claims, that the natural enemy of the teacher is the principal, the natural enemy of the student is the teacher, and so on.

Halpern (1969) uses an example in his definition of collaboration:

> By collaboration I do not mean harmony. Two medieval knights who have agreed to fight each other, even unto death, collaborate with each other throughout their conflict. They do not end until the trumpet sounds again. They collaborate in agreeing not to use illegitimate moves or weapons. I know of no form of conflict, except incoherent conflict, which is possible without collaboration, and no collaboration, not even love, which is possible without taking account of the conflict-ridden fact that the other is not the self. (p. 58)

Equality: A key concept expressed or implied within definitions of collaboration is that of equality. Most writers seem to agree that equality is necessary if collaboration is to exist, but the type and degree of equality required is interepreted differently by individual

collaboration.

Earl D. Clark in "A Conceptual Basis for Collaboration" (1975) tells us that to have collaboration each party must "contribute as equally as possible" (p. 2). Paolo Freire in Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1971) claims that all humans can participate in a dialogue where "the other" is looked upon as equal.

The type and degree of equality is discussed in a more specific sense by some definers. Evan R. Collins, speaking for university participation in collaborative arrangements in teacher education, says that participants must be perceived as equals, but "equals with differentiated responsibilities and with accountability for different functions" (1971, p. 21).

F. H. Hite and Drummond describe the difference of equalities as the difference between the political and operational level of collaboration. At the political level, they claim, all participants are equal and all have an equal vote. At the operational level, however, some participants have more expertise in specific areas than others. Therefore, at the operational level participants work in their particular area of expertise, and are not necessarily equal to other participants in that one area. (1975, p. 134)

Don Bigelow once described a collaborative arrangement similar to the one defined by Hite and Drummond. He called the participants "A group of strange bed-fellows, the real association of which reflects considerable progress both in cross-fertilization and common sense" (Schmieder, 1972, p. 81).

Parity: The word parity is often used in definitions of collaboration; at times it is even used interchangeably with collaboration. Equally as often, the word collaboration is used in definitions of parity. Within the literature there is obvious confusion about the similarity, difference, or equivalence of the terms parity and collaboration.

Most of the literature agrees that parity means equality or the state of equality. The literature does not agree on the extent of this equality, nor on the means for deciding the equality. Does equality mean equal numbers, equal voice, equal vote, equal justice? None of these questions are answered in the same way by the various authors who have written about parity.

Likewise, the place of parity in collaboration or the place of collaboration in parity is unclear. William Smith defines parity as "collaborative, mutual, deliberative decision making and planning" (Schmieder, 1972, p. 96). The United States Office of Education (USOE) Task Force '72, of which Smith was a member, agreed. The task force added that parity is "shared decision-making with equivalent respect to all input. The relationship of parties to a common enterprise which is characterized by the due attention to the expertise, perspectives, and needs of each of the parties" (Mathieson, 1972, p. 506).

Similarly, the Report on Higher Education (1971) claimed that parity exists when each party has "an equal voice in overall planning, policy formation, assignment of agency responsibilities, inter-agency coordination, evaluation of programs, and the hearings of individual or institutional appeals" (Schmieder, 1972, p. 95).

The similarity of these definitions of parity and those definitions of collaboration, stressing the equality of the relationships, is striking. In some instances there is little or no difference between the definitions of collaboration and parity. (See Hite and Drummond definition of collaboration and preceding definitions of parity.)

If one accepts the notion of collaboration meaning, in part, working with the enemy, or at the least, working with those who might be perceived by some as being the enemy, then it must be possible to have collaboration without parity. The word parity means equality and equality can only be present between two or more persons. Therefore, the very word assumes that collaboration exists.

Every defintion of collaboration states or assumes the presence of sharing. Most assume the presence of equality. Therefore, parity, in its broad sense, must be present in meaningful collaboration. Without parity collaboration takes on only its second meaning, the notion of working with the enemy. And, as in the example of the medieval knights, this collaboration need not benefit all the participants.

The postulates summarized:

The search of the literature revealed 15 postulates which must be present in successful collaboration. On the following pages those postulates are discussed at length. A brief summary may make them more accessible to the readers.

1. Theory Y as a basic assumption.

McGregor's Theory Y claims that people enjoy work; and, if the goals of the organization are such that they benefit the individual, that person will work toward these goals. When an individual is involved in setting and at least partially contributing to the reaching of the goals, benefit, through self-fulfillment, is automatic. Therefore, if collaboration is to be successful and produce its agreed-upon goals Theory Y must be the foundation of the effort.

2. Equality of membership.

If there is to be an equality of membership, the individuals must understand the interdependence of each of the component parts. Understanding of this interdependence can be gained through a knowledge and appreciation of the others' expertise. This can only occur if participants contribute to the equality in those areas in which they are best qualified. Equality means sharing those things which the participant does best. Sharing exists in open communications, group identity establishment, benefits, responsibilities, and accountability.

3. Similarity of orientation.

Individuals must live in a world they can understand in order to experience self-esteem.

Women may have difficulty collaborating because collaboration requires skills and attitudes which are not normally part of the female up-bringing and mind set (long range goals, risk taking, giving to get, understanding of organization environment, cooperation, team work, working with people who would not be chosen as friends, advancing one's own position by advancing the organization's position). These

differences in mind set which can block collaboration must be understood by the individuals and the organizations. If each person's differences are respected these differences can be used in creative collaboration.

4. An understanding of the prehistory.

A new organization and its goals must fit within the predetermined image of the parent organizations. If the prehistory of the collaborative setting involves components who are opposed to cooperation and who exhibit control tactics within their organizations, collaboration in the new setting will be difficult. If the new setting is designed to be innovative, as most new settings are, the history of the old settings must encourage innovation.

5. Careful design of the collaborative setting.

It cannot be assumed that the creation of the new setting is primarily a technical problem, nor can the complexity of the problem of setting development be underestimated. Blame for problems cannot be placed on external factors.

The setting must be designed to aid in the promotion of self-esteem. A new way of thinking must be developed. The new setting must do something different than the old setting. The setting must be careful not to cross the domain of the components and yet be responsive to their needs. Most importantly, a mechanism for examining new setting problems must be developed.

6. A need for innovation.

Innovation helps in the avoidance of boredom, loss of interest, and loss of effectiveness. Without commitment to innovation parity (equality) cannot exist. Continuous innovation is important in a new

setting to keep it from becoming a "prisoner" of where it started.

A "universe of alternatives" must be generated to solve problems. A critic or a subdivision of the collaborative setting should have the function of discovering this "universe."

7. Commonality of goals.

One of the major goals of any new collaborative setting must be to help the components meet their organizational missions. Therefore, it is extremely important that each component understand its mission and the interdependence of it in relation to the other components.

The goals of the new collaborative setting must be innovatively different and not achievable by any individual component. These goals must be understood by the components as helping them reach their mission.

Reachable goals, which can be directly attributed to the new collaboration, must be set early in the setting's development. The goals must be integrated with the individual as well as the institutional goals.

8. Commitment to the idea of collaboration.

Collaboration must be supported by the institutional membership and the administration if it is to be successful. The components must perceive themeselves as competent in collaboration. The strength and potential of each component must be recognized by each other component in successful collaboration.

9. A clear concept of roles, institutional and individual.

An honest assessment of capabilities and an understanding of interdependence is important in goal setting.

Individuals must clearly understand their own roles within the

collaborative setting. The assignment of roles should be based on real capacity to encourage self-actualization.

10. An understanding of the benefit of collaboration, institutional and individual.

The components must benefit from the new setting and they should see this benefit as a result of collaboration. The rightful domain of each of the components must be protected. The domain of the new setting must be in the area of institutional overlap. Problem solving strategies must be used to gain integrative potential.

Individuals should benefit through direct rewards (salary, leave time, etc.), when possible, and indirect rewards (belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization), in all instances. Usually collaborative settings cannot establish direct awards. Therefore, indirect awards are extremely important, and the obtainment of direct rewards should not be frustrated by requirement of the collaborative setting.

Indirect rewards are obtained through the successful completion of useful tasks. Therefore, it is important that each individual be able to work to his/her potentiality within the new setting.

11. The careful appointment of a director and staff.

The director and staff are usually selected late in the development of the collaborative setting. It is, therefore, extremely important for them to understand the history of the setting as well as the prehistory which antedated its establishment.

The director and staff must be committed to the idea of collaboration. They must understand the goals of the new setting as well as the goals of each of the components so they can aid in the attainment of these objectives.

12. The development of a mechanism for conflict resolution.

Conflict, itself, when handled carefully, can be collaborative and further future collaboration. The new setting must develop an arena for creative conflict management.

There must be an understanding of the difference between substantive and emotional conflict. Each requires different mechanisms for resolution.

13. The importance of an external critic.

An external critic can aid in conflict management. The critic is removed from the setting and, therefore, can more easily judge the nature of the conflict.

The external critic can also evaluate the gap between the setting's practices and objectives. The critic can act as a "stranger" questioning all the unquestionable practices of the setting.

14. The importance of resource and political reallocation.

In collaborative settings people who have previously held power must abdicate it. Resources must be reallocated to allow for: information sharing; the learning of new roles; freedom from legal, political, or financial constraints; devotion of sufficient administrative time, adequate financial base; cooperative funding; start-up funds; involvement of all components in proposal writing; and new rewards and penalties.

15. The total involvement of all components.

The more people involved the larger the pool of resources and ideas and the broader the support base. The collaboration and the goals must be carefully analyzed so that all possible component parts are included.

Postulates

The literature agrees that certain postulates must be present before meaningful collaboration can occur. A search of the literature of anthropology, psychology, philosophy, business, management, sociology, political science, and education revealed 15 requirements for successful, meaningful collaboration.

Postulate 1- Theory "Y" as a Basic Assumption:

In 1960 Douglas McGregor wrote The Human Side of Enterprise in which he compared Theories he called X and Y. Theory Y states that work effort is natural; humans will exercise self-direction and self-control in completing objectives to which they are committed. The commitment to objectives, according to McGregor's theory, is directly related to the rewards associated with their achievement. Likewise, the average individual, under proper conditions, seeks responsibility. The ability to creatively and imaginatively seek solutions of organizational problems is widely distributed.

Theory X, on the other hand, leads naturally to tactics of control. This theory assumes that people must be made to do what is necessary for the success of the enterprise. According to this theory, the average human dislikes work and must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened. The theory also states that people like being directed. McGregor claims that even though this theory appears to be the dominant mode of management it ignores basic facts about human nature.

McGregor agrees with other motivation psychologists that needs are hierarchical and humans are constantly seeking to fill needs at the next higher level. Therefore, when the physiological and safety needs are met, humans attempt to meet the social and "egotistic" (p. 38) needs. Finally, people strive for "self-fulfillment" (p. 39). These needs are for the realization of one's own potential. According to McGregor, and other motivational theorists, "A satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior!" (p. 36).

Theory Y, unlike Theory X, takes motivation and human nature into account. "The central principle which derives from Theory Y is that of integration: the creation of conditions such that the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the enterprise" (p. 49).

Collaboration is a very important concept within Theory Y. The theory, according to McGregor is preoccupied with the "nature of relationships" (p. 132), and with the creation of environments which will encourage commitment to the goals of the organization, and which will provide opportunity for self-direction, initiative and ingenuity in achieving them. One part of the creation of environment which encourages "successful collaboration" (p. 240),according to McGregor, is the formation of "unique kinds of interaction which can only occur in a highly effective group setting" (p. 240).

If this theory is not the basic belief of those entering collaborative modes, it will be difficult for the participants to successfully work together in shared-decision making. "The assumptions of Theory Y point up the fact that the limits on human collaboration in the organizational setting are not limits of human nature but of management's ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential represented by its human resources" (McGregor, 1960, p. 48).

Postulate 2 - Equality of membership:

The definitions of collaboration clearly stress the importance of equality of membership. Collaboration happens best among equals (South, 1977).

Before equality can be realized there must be an awareness of the

interdependence of each of the component parts of the collaborative effort. Traditionally, in teacher education, for example, the training of professional teachers has been the task of higher education. Today, however, there is a move away from university based teacher training, toward a cooperation between higher education, school district, and the community. If this cooperative effort is to be successful, each of these groups must be aware of their interdependence with the other groups in the process of the education of teachers.

In the past the component parts have not been considered equal in the training of teachers. Kimball (1974), for example, in his discussion of natural enemies points out that those in subordinate positions who can be exploited may consider their superordinates enemies. Teachers, therefore, may consider administrators to be the enemy; students may look at teachers as the enemy. Similarly, says Kimball, the natural enemy of the parent (community) may be the school administration, or it may be the teacher. Likewise, the student may view the parents as the enemy. The shared supervision of the young by the parent and the teacher places them in a tangent position. This child, according to Kimball, therefore, provides the basis for both cohesion and tension (p. 38). Since higher education has been the source of teacher training, it can be viewed as the superordinate in the training of teachers. Thereby, if we accept Kimball's view, it can become the natural enemy of the school district administrators, teachers, and indirectly the parents and the students.

These historical relationships must be understood if we are to develop a new equality. In addition, to counteract these relationships, each of the component parts must seek to understand its interdependence in the teacher training enterprise. Higher education provides the theoretical training (in the arts and sciences as well as education) and produces the research that furthers the theory. School districts, including administrators and teachers, provide the practical experience and training for future teachers. Communities provide the resources for the training of the teachers. And students are the subjects as well as the beneficiaries of improved instruction through improved training and research. James Gardner tells us that "both society and the individual profit by free movement of people from one organization to another, and from one segment of society to another" (1971, p. 95). Only interdependence and equality allow for this free movement.

The openness of the process encourages equality. An open information-sharing process, according to Richard Walton "promotes trust" (1972, p. 106). McGregor claims that this openness is exhibited by communication between the members as well as with perceived superiors (1960, p. 228). It can only be obtained in a climate of mutual confidence.

The members of the collaborative body may begin to feel this confidence if a sense of shared identity is affirmed. Participation by the members in the decision making process may give them a feeling of belongingness and ownership of the product (Drummond and Baker, 1974, p. 34). Sharing the group's identity is a two way street. In

sharing the group's identity the members seek affirmation of their own identity, or what McGregor calls self-fulfillment. "The status of the group, its reputation for achievement, its exclusivity are all important in determining the extent to which [the members] want to share the group's identity and simultaneously be able to affirm [their] own" (Hennig & Jardim, 1977, p. 171).

If members are able to affirm their own identity through the group's identity, they will be more likely to feel a sense of ownership of the group and the group's products. This sense of ownership in turn will increase their feeling of belongingness. When the members have a sense of cohesiveness they will be more open. Openness encourages equality and a sense of interdependence.

This interdependence may become one of the costs of collaboration, however. Edward T. Ladd warns us that when we put ourselves in truly collaborative situations we put ourselves at the mercy of others. Likewise, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman in their famous study The Motivation to Work tell us that the degree of cohesiveness can affect the group's ability to control the behavior of its members (1959, p. 9). This dependency and control may produce tension. It can breed, if collaborators are not aware of its danger, feelings of insecurity and suspicion, defensive behavior, and often expressions of hostility (Ladd, 1966, p. 98).

If equality is to exist within the collaborative structure it is important to consider the expertise of each of the individuals. As the studies of Maslow (1970), McGregor (1960) and Herzberg et al. have shown people cannot be self-actualized, self-fulfilled,

or productive in their jobs if they are not working in the area of their potentiality. The Task Force of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1974) recommended a "differentiated partnership" in collaborative modes of governance. [Similar to the political and operation of differentiation recommended in the Hite and Drummond definition, the Task Force suggested "equal participation in policy making and differentiation in degree of participation in management and operation" (Smith, 1975).] Only if people are working in areas of their expertise can they be self-fulfilled, and only if they are self-fulfilled can they participate as equals in collaboration.

In a truly equal collaboration each partner shares not only the benefits but the responsibility and accountability of the organization (Cady, p. 26). This can only happen if the participants are self-fulfilled and working in areas of their own expertise. This can only occur in a setting where openness and interdependence are the by-words.

Postulate 3 - Similarity of orientation:

> Form and content of the behaviors and attitudes on which the process of collaboration is built are not common to all life styles. They are standard urbane, middle management [and male] repertoire, but far from universal. (Van Fleet, 1974)

Anthropologist Abram Kardiner in The Individual and His Society (1939) and The Psychological Frontiers of Society (1945) found that the adults in any culture possessed a sense of self as primary by

living in institutions for which they were prepared by early life. Adults can only feel self esteem, according to Kardiner, when they are living in a world in which they can understand the patterns. Self-esteem is necessary if we are to have true collaboration. Adults, therefore, must be prepared through their up-bringing for the environment in which they are collaborating and for collaboration itself.

In late 1977, a book by Margaret Hennig and Anne Jardim reported the results of research begun at Harvard in the early 1970s. The research was compiled on women in middle and upper management positions. The results of the research clearly show patterns in a woman's ability or inability to function in a male dominated professional world. If the results and interpretations of this research are correct, they may indicate that the main postulates of collaboration are male oriented, that women will find it difficult to participate using the collaborative "game plan," that collaboration itself is a male designed activity, and that differences in style, mind-set and societal up-bringing make it difficult for men and women to collaborate.

The interviews of men and women in the classes of the two professors over a three year period, the indepth interviews of 45 senior women managers in a large northeastern public utility prior to 1973, the interviews of 63 women in management positions in the banking industry beginning in 1973, and finally the extensive interviews of 25 chief executive women and a control group of 25 women who seemed to be on the same career path but did not make it to the highest

positions in their corporations or businesses, revealed that there were significant differences in the career patterns of men and women, and those women who "made it" tended to follow the male pattern.

Women, the study showed, are not long-range goal oriented. Typically, career decisions are not made until after 30, "when suddenly I realized I was probably going to work for the rest of my life" (p. 6). The extensive interviews indicated that women "concentrate on the day-to-day aspects of the job with no viable concept of time in relation to oneself to back it up, to measure progress, or to allow one to adapt or change direction" (p. 11).

All the women interviewed, except the chief executives, exhibited a sense of passivity. Related to that sense is the emphasis on individual self-improvement as the critical factor determining career advancement. Similarly, women when asked what they thought would be critical in achieving their goals identified factors which related closely to their own capacities, factors they could,or thought they could, control. They did not talk about the organizational environment. None of them talked about the need to make what they wanted known to other people who mattered. None talked of the importance of understanding the political system. None exhibited an understanding of "the informal system of relationships and information sharing, ties of loyalty and of dependence, of favors granted and owed, of mutual benefit, of protection" (p. 12).

> Men, on the other hand; expressly relate the jobs they do to their concept of career as advancement, as upward progression. For them a job is part of a career.

> Women separate the two issues completely: a job is in the here and now and a career is an intensely personal goal which the individual alone can judge whether she has achieved. . .[men] see [a job] as part of a career, and as a consequence the cues they see, hear and act on, the relationships they strive to develop and the visibility they seek to achieve have both a present meaning and a future importance. (pp. 14-15)

Other patterns of difference the study indicates include: (1) Women strive for a separation between their jobs and their personal life. Men prepare for their life work even in their youth by the organizations they join and the alliances they seek. (2) Women separate the job in the "here and now" from their career; men see their job as part of that career. (3) Men define their personal strategy as winning. Women's definitions are of process (planning, finding the best way), the element of time is absent from the examples she gives. (4) Men see risk as part of winning or losing, risk can be good, and must be taken. Women see risk as entirely negative, one avoids it whenever possible. (5) Men decide their role or the style they will use with knowledge of what is expected of them by their supervisors. Women have no sense of "game being played" (p. 31), the investment is in oneself, the vulnerability to criticism and to hurt is great, and the belief that one can do a job one does not already know is small (pp. 19-31).

The researchers found that the greatest variable in the

different career orientation of men and women was up-bringing which created differences in "mind-set", and style of playing the game. Interestingly, those women who reached high level management positions were raised in almost identical, male oriented patterns.

For several years Hennig and Jardim have been asking their male students about being on teams. Some of their insight may be significant to the difference in career orientation; and more importantly some of the responses may indicate why collaboration may be easier for men than women.

The researchers compiled typical answers to the question: What did you have to learn if you wanted to stay on the team? The most frequent responses included: competition, you had to win; cooperation to get a job done, you had to work with guys you wouldn't choose as friends; if you got swell-headed other guys didn't block for you; what it felt like to lose, you win some you lose some; how to take criticism; you didn't get anywhere without planning and you had to have alternative plans; once you knew the rules you could bend them, you could influence the referee; if you were knocked down you had to get up again; some people were better than others, but you had to have 11 to win (pp. 22-23).

Many of the responses given by male students about their team experiences could lead to an understanding of an ability to work in collaborative situations. Some people were better than others, but you had to have 11 to win. "Success at planning demands an awareness of group weaknesses and strengths and an ability to balance the one against the other without destructive conflict" (p. 24).

If you got swell-headed other guys didn't block for you. Dealing with people is a learned task. From the time the men were young children, most worked in collaborative situations, women have not. Men have learned how to use the influence of other people, how to avoid antagonizing them. You had to work with guys you wouldn't choose as friends. The ability to work with those who some might perceive as the enemy is a skill learned by men in team play. Once you knew the rules you could bend them. Men have learned how to get what they want from a situation, even a situation where they must work with people whom they would not choose as friends.

Most participants in collaborative arrangements hold positions similar to those in corporate middle management. The Hennig, Jardim Study indicates that women have extreme difficulty in middle management positions, and the vast majority are unable to advance above them. The research seems to show that this is caused by an inability to work within a group relationship; a desire to form good relationships, rather than to advance one's position by advancing the organization's position.

In educational collaboration public school teachers play a significant role in the shared governance. If the teachers participating in the collaboration are women (and this is likely, since the majority of public school teachers are women) and if this study is correct, these teacher/women/collaborators could be caught in a two-horned dilemma: as women they are less familiar with team work, with working with those who would not be chosen as friends; as teachers they are in a specialist role and,therefore,a subordinate role to

other members of the council who are more likely to participate in middle management positions in their fulltime jobs, placing them in a perceived superordinate role to the women/teachers. Likewise, if Kimball's theory of the natural enemy is correct, these women may perceive their superordinate counterparts as this enemy.

However, as A. H. Maslow tells us in his famous study on motivation, we can avoid conflict by understanding the ideological differences of the individuals and the organizations (1970, pp. 119-128). Likewise,other writings about collaboration have said that we must "respect the views" of all the collaborators (Allen, 1974, p. 3) (Freir, 1971) (Smith, 1966, p. 417). Understanding and respect of differences in style, mind-set, and ideology should contribute to collaborative ability.

Postulate 4 - An understanding of the prehistory:

> Just as no act can be performed, at least by a normal person, which is wholly at variance with the organized system of behavior, so no perception can be formed which has no place in a predetermined perceptual schema, and no statement can be accepted as determining action which is not compatible with the organized system of presumptions. (de Laguna, 1927, p. 329)

In 1927 Grace de Laguna, linguist and anthropologist, told us that no new idea, no new organization can be formulated unless it fits within a "predetermined perceptual schema," unless it is compatible with the "organized system of presumptions." Often, however, this important consideration is lost during the creation of new organizations

and the formulation of new ideas.

Seymour Sarason in his 1971 book, The Creation of a Community Setting, reiterates the importance of the consideration of prehistory in every new setting. The book is a case study of the creation of the New Haven (Connecticut) Regional Center for the Mentally Retarded in collaboration with the Yale Psycho-Educational Clinic and the Central Connecticut Regional Center. Sarason stresses the importance of understanding and using the prehistory which antedates the establishment of a new organization. He warns us that organizations cannot function if they do not fit in the "schema" (p. 61).

Likewise, Hite and Drummond suggest to developers of collaborative settings that the organization must have a history of cooperation and broad participation in goal setting if the collaboration is to be successful (1975, p. 134).

> The creation of a setting takes place in a context or in an organized system which has a history and traditions, and these in part determine the degree to which the new setting will be capable of innovating. Only in rare instances is a new setting intended merely to replicate what already exists. What is significant in this regard is the frequency with which history and tradition are ignored or glossed over by those creating a setting, and as a consequence, instead of innovation the end result is frequently another instance of 'the more things change the more they remain the same.' The ahistorical tendency allows one 'to get off the ground' quicker; it

also produces crash landings. (Sarason, 1971, p. 89)

In the creation of a collaborative setting the developers must not only consider the prehistory in terms of the specific role of the collaborative setting (e.g.: the mental health center in terms of the history of mental health facilities in Connecticut), but also the history of each of the component parts. Therefore, an educational collaborative setting which is to involve public school teachers, administrators, university personnel, and community members in an effort to improve teacher education must look at all these groups in terms of their prehistory in cooperating with other agencies and organizations, as well as their prehistory in terms of dealing with teacher education.

Similarly, a double pluralism exists in a collaborative setting which involves people from the "beleaguered minorities" and different institutions. "We should be aware of a double pluralism. On the one hand there is the pluralism of cultural difference. . .in addition there is pluralism of an institutional kind. These latter are formal agencies of government, universities, schools, churches, voluntary associations and private groups, all of which have vested interests" (Kimball, 1974, p. 35).

Therefore, in attempting to achieve collaboration we must be aware of the "highly complex cultural and organizational system" (Kimball, p. 35), as well as "subcultural differences" (Ladd, 1966, p.34). Understanding of the history and culture of each of the components, as well as the place of the new organization in this history, should aid in the formation of settings that fit into the

prehistory and the "perceptual schema."

Postulate 5 - Careful design of the collaborative setting:

The two major problems in the design of a new setting are, according to Sarason: the assumption that the creation of the new setting is essentially a technical problem which proceeds in steps (obtaining space, defining roles, hiring staff, hammering out a program, and delivering what is supposed to be delivered); and the tendency to underestimate the complexity of the problem (1971, pp. 2-3). Similarly, there is a tendency to explain early problems away by placing the blame on external factors (the "system", the stubbornness of the component parts, lack of funding, the weight of tradition). The need to simplify or explain away internal problems, Sarason tells us, is "a defensive tactic to protect the self [and] is inversely related to the degree of awareness of the complexity of the issues and its consequences" (p. 73).

[The social setting must be carefully considered in the creation of new settings, it is an aspect which affects the operation of collaboration (Kimball, 1974).] Anthropologists tell us that "identity is inseparable from the role one is assigned" (Becker, 1962, p. 85). Since the person maintains identity in relation to other objects in the social environment, this environment and the objects within it are the sources of self-perception and self-esteem for the individual. This setting, therefore, must be carefully designed to protect individuals at their most susceptible point, self-esteem. The setting must be designed to confirm the identity of the individuals if they are to work successfully within it. Sociologist Erving Goffman calls this the

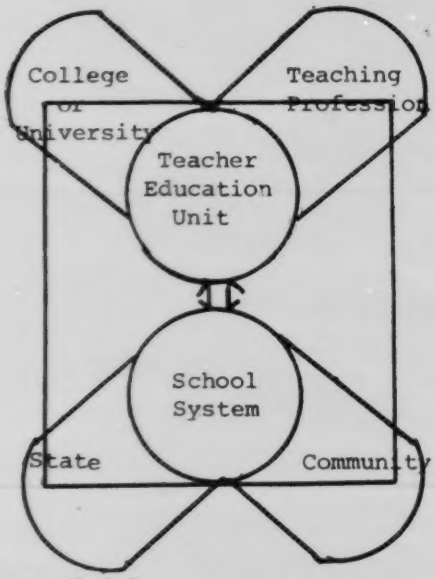
"Face Ritual" (Becker, p. 94). It is from this ritual that we have coined the phrase "to save face." Likewise, social encounters have the potential for self-aggrandizement. The "creativity of social encounter is its potential for increasing the value of the self in one's own eyes" (Becker, p. 113).

Sarason reports that Ira Goldenberg, an evaluator of the Job Corps Center Project, "had come to see that a major factor in the too-frequent self-defeating aspects of the creation of a setting was not in what people did, but in what people thought. . . . A central problem was the necessity of evolving a way of thinking about creating a setting" (1971, p. 5).

Some of the innovative thoughts are actually common sense ways of thinking about new settings. These include: (1) being sure that all the participants and component parts understand what it is that the new setting is to do differently than the old setting (Klugman, 1974, p. 17); (2) establishing early trust among the participants, arranging for situations where sharing (giving up) is possible early in the game (Hite & Drummond, 1975, p. 133); (3) establishing a vehicle by which internal problems peculiar to the beginning of a new setting can be anticipated and dealt with (Sarason, 1971, p. 4); (4) setting up systems of both inter- and intra-organizational communication; (Hite & Drummond, p. 134) (Klugman, p. 16) (Sarason, p. 17); (5) setting up channels for formal shared decision-making (Howey, 1974); (6) considering the importance of domain (organization's access to necessary resources, locus in interorganization network, legitimate right to operate in specific geographic regions and functional areas, and

channels of access to task and maintenance resources), as well as "access to those resources which it needs to perform its task function and to remain viable as an actor" (Sarason, p. 22); (7) striving to be visible, to be seen and heard (Howsam, 1974, pp. 21-22).

To be effective a new setting (system) must be responsive to the older settings (suprasystems) in its environment. "It can expect to be held accountable by its suprasystem(s) for the quality of its responsiveness to other systems even though it is not accountable to those other systems themselves" (Howsam, p. 6). Teacher education is the training arm of teaching. Therefore, teacher training is a subsystem to the teaching profession and accountable to it for its performance. Likewise, teacher education is a subsystem of the university and therefore accountable to it. Similarly the school system is a subsystem of the state, state agencies, and the community and boards of education. It is accountable to these suprasystems.



new
Collaborative
Setting

1. Howsam Model

The diagram represents the teacher education unit as a subsystem of higher education and the teaching profession and the school system as a subsystem of the state and community. The teacher education unit and the school system are parts of a larger education suprasystem. Teacher education units and school systems are not accountable one to the other, but they must be responsive to each other. This need for collaboration is expressed diagramatically. Facilitation of this collaboration may be accomplished through the establishment of a new setting, a setting that is responsive to the older settings (suprasystems) in the environment (Howsam, pp. 6-9).

Postulate 6 - A need for innovation:

William Drummond tells us that "collaboration requires. . . continuing innovation, stimulating enterprise to keep the venture from dying of boredom" (1974, p. 5). However, "dying of boredom"is not the only problem of a setting without innovation. Sarason (1971) reminds us that if a person's professional efforts are always directed in a particular way or always use a particular tool, not only will the person die of boredom, but the individual's outlook will become "parochial," professional and personal growth will diminish, and the level of curiosity in one's work will decrease (p. 81). Sarason (1971) found that after only five years teachers become bored with their jobs, lose interest in their work, and are less effective in the classroom. Broadening the scope of interest for the participants in a collaborative effort can slow this atrophy.

Alexander Plante of the Connecticut State Department of Education claims that without a commitment to change, parity, even at a

minimum, cannot exist (Schmieder, 1972, p. 95). A commitment to change is usually the result of severe organization stress administered either internally or externally (Marsh, 1974). Therefore, the commitment to change is more likely in stressful periods. If the stress is not present, the commitment to change is unlikely, and the willingness to participate in a collaborative mode is decreased.

When a new setting is formed it is important that alternative ways of thinking and acting are introduced (Sarason, p. 59). New settings, after all, are designed to accomplish something different than the old settings. New settings, therefore, are change oriented, and it is important that they do not become "prisoners of where [they] started" (Sarason, p. 56).

Early in the creation of new settings, even before they are established, alternative ways of thinking and acting must be examined. "There is always a universe of alternatives which could be considered, but in practice there seems to be awareness only of a very constricted universe, and this is largely due to the weight of tradition, a pessimistic assessment of what others will allow, and the lack of an organizational vehicle devoted to a description of the universe of alternative" (Sarason, p. 92).

Problems need to be examined in a non-typical way. Sarason talks about asking questions which are out of the participants' realm of reasoning. In discussing the development of the mental health center such questions were posed: "What if you were given the responsibility to develop residential facilities with the restriction that they could not be on 'institutional land,' not one of them could house more than

12 individuals, and no new building could be erected?" (p. 30). The result of these questions was the development of out-patient centers that involved the resources of the entire community in ways never imagined.

The emphasis of the problem solving method is the generation of many alternatives. The likelihood of a multitude of new solutions is increased by using this method (Walton, 1972, p. 103). The importance of the critic who calls attention to areas that require renewal is paramount in problem solving (Gardner, 1971, p. 36). "Whereas conflict tends to cause individuals to seek ways of weakening and undermining those who differ with them, the problem solving approach leads individuals to welcome differences as potentially enriching to one's own goal" (Schmidt & Tannenbaum, 1960, p. 112).

The importance of a vehicle devoted to discovering "the universe of alternatives" cannot be over-estimated. James Gardner in his classic work on self-renewal tells us that "perhaps what every corporation needs is a department of continuous renewal that would view the whole organization as a system in need of continuing innovation" (p. 74).

Postulate 7 - Commonality of Goals:

The creation of a new setting, particularly a collaborative setting, requires the involvement of old settings with a variety of purposes and traditions. "One comes quickly to recognize that. . . the problems of coordinating them in a non-self-defeating way are enormous" (Sarason, p. 72).

Before the components become involved in the formation of a new

setting they must be clear about their own goals (Hite & Drummond, p. 134). Unless they have a clear perception of themselves they will be unable to understand how the new setting can help them obtain their objectives. It is important that one of the functions of the new setting is to help the components better meet their own mission. Obviously, the greater the similarity of purpose, the easier the task (Swift, 1973, p. 2).

The goals of the new setting must be innovatively different from the goals of the component parts, and not achievable by any individual component (Sarason, pp. 30-32). Therefore, the new settings must be future oriented. If this new setting is past and present oriented it is dealing with the problems created by the component parts, the suprasystem, to which it is accountable. Goldenberg (1971) points out that there is usually only a small number of ideas which dominate thinking during the early stages of the creation of a new setting. "One characteristic of these guiding ideas is that they are in some way or other a reaction against an existing state of affairs or traditions" (Sarason, p. 23). Therefore, in a very real way, these ideas are reactions against the existing settings, the component parts of the new setting, the suprasystem.

"In creating a new setting there is the conscious aim to demonstrate that what one is creating will be better than or superior to existing settings. . . . There is a competitive tendency to want to excel and be distinctive. And it is not rare for those in related or similar settings. . . to view the new one as competitive in the sense that the existing settings are not all that they might be" (Sarason,

p. 75). Since the new setting is created to do something better or at least different than the old setting, since the component parts of the new setting are the main actors in the old setting, since unrecognized competition against the old setting on the part of the new setting exists, and since recognized competition against the new setting also exists on the part of the old setting, there is a triple bind in the creation of a collaborative setting.

Therefore, it is extremely important that the new setting be viewed as: (1) accomplishing something that is not part of the old setting's domain, (2) having goals that are going to help the old setting reach its objectives, and (3) benefiting each of the component parts.

A unity of purpose within the new setting is extremely important (McGregor, 1960, p. 228). Likewise, the purposes must fall within the areas of old setting overlap. The new setting must be careful to avoid setting goals that reach beyond its own domain (Ladd, 1969, pp. 14 & 20). Without common goals problem solving and collaboration are impossible, and only negotiation can exist (Walton, 1972, p. 106) (Gress, 1977). Goldenberg, in reporting the failure of a Job Corp Project, said that "each group saw itself as distinctive, and, equally important, saw. . .the goals of the center in distinctive ways. In short order, the 'empires' characteristics of complicated settings were locked in battle (Sarason, p. 4).

The goals must not only possess common significance but they must be understood by each of the new setting's component parts (Orlosky, 1977). The goals must be accurately stated and there must

be a mutual understanding of needs, anxieties, and concerns if problem solving is to occur (Walton, p. 102-103).

One of the problems often involved in the formation of new collaborative settings is thinking "too grandly" (Smith, 1975, p. 35). Specific objectives and targets, covering specific time periods, must be set. The new setting (subsystem) must be careful to set these targets within the objectives of the old settings (suprasystem). This setting of specific, achievable objectives is important for two reasons: (1) The subsystem is working on goals that are important to the suprasystems, and (2) the acceptance of responsibility is directly correlated with the commitment to achievable objectives (McGregor, 1960, pp. 67-71). According to the Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman study (1959), increased responsibility relates to self-fulfillment, which relates to commitment to the work at hand.

"Success in the attainment of initial goals enhances the likelihood of continued cooperative endeavors" (Nahrstedt, 1967, p. 25). Since the commitment to these goals is correlated to responsibility and this responsibility relates to self-fulfillment, the successful achievement of the goals increases feelings of self-fulfillment as well as group cohesiveness. Both self-fulfillment and group cohesiveness make future collaboration more likely. This is especially true if the success of these goals is seen as a probable result of the collaborative effort (Hite and Drummond, p. 134).

It is equally important that the collaborative setting integrate its goals with individual goals as well as institutional goals (McGregor, 1960). Maslow suggests that "new organizations can evolve,

in which social needs of the individual worker can merge with the goals of the organization" (Fibkins, 1977, p. 49). Management by integration is a theory by which employees can best achieve their goals by directing their efforts toward the objectives of the enterprise (McGregor, 1960) (Tuite, 1972).

Theories of motivation have indicated that people are most fulfilled when they are working to their potentiality (Herzberg, et al.,1959) (McGregor, 1960) (Maslow, 1970). These theories have also indicated that individuals work to their potentiality (self-actualization) when they receive recognition and experience feelings of achievement (Herzberg, et al). According to Maslow (1970), only fundamental goals remain constant. Therefore, these fundamental goals (belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization) must be considered when new setting goals are established.

The amount of individual commitment to the setting's objectives is proportional to the self-actualization (potentiality) reached through pursuing the goals (McGregor, 1960) (Maslow, 1970). "Anthropological evidence indicates that ultimate desires of all human beings do not differ nearly as much as their conscious desires" (Maslow, 1970, p. 22). Therefore, if we think in terms of ultimate desires (belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization) in goal setting we will be able to open ourselves to more innovation by freeing ourselves from the bind of thinking about what resources we can use to support the project.

Postulate 8 - Commitment to the idea of collaboration;

Numerous studies have indicated that institutional member support

is important to the success of collaboration (Baker, 1974, p. 111) (Hite & Drummond, 1975, p. 134) (Institute for International Studies, 1971, p. 11) (Moore, 1969, p. 20) (Schwenkenmeyer & Goodman, 1972, p. 20). Unless members understand the goals of their own institution, however, they will be unable to collaborate successfully (Baker, p. 110). One of the goals of the collaborative setting, as discussed in postulate 7 (Commonality of Goals), is to further the mission of each of the older settings (suprasystems). If the individual members of the suprasystems have an unclear concept of that mission, it will be difficult for them to work in the new collaborative setting to further the objectives of the older setting.

Likewise, it is important that cooperative action be part of the governance of the suprasystems (Baker, p. 110). If the component parts of the new collaborative setting are not committed to cooperation within the governance of their own domain, it is unlikely that they will be able to collaborate successfully in the new setting. Members of the older system should view themselves as part of the institutional problem solving mechanism (Baker, p. 110). Similarly, collaboration can be achieved more successfully within the new setting if institutional members perceive themselves as already competent in collaboration (Baker, p. 111).

It follows that administrative leaders must value and give their support to collaboration if it is to be successful (Hite & Drummond, p. 134). Studies have found that suprasystem administrative support of collaboration is the most important element in effective development of new interinstitutional collaborative settings (Evans, 1968, p. 7)

(Institute for International Studies, p. 11) (Martorana, 1961, p. 35) (Moore, 1969, p. 20) (Silverman, 1969, p. 2) (Schwenkenmeyer & Goodman, p. 20).

Likewise, it is important that the administration accept the status of the other institutions as equal (Baker, p. 190) (Ertell, 1957, p. 106) (Silverman, p. 2). Administrative recognition of the strength and potential of all the institutions involved in the new collaborative setting is important (Baker, p. 108) (Martorana, p. 35). The suprasystem administration must also understand the weakness of its own program (Martorana, p. 35). The administration of the supra-systems must be committed to equal joint planning and decision-making for successful collaboration (Baker, p. 108) (Martorana, p. 35). Similarly, the administration of each of the component parts must be willing to share their resources with the other component parts (Baker, 109) (Martorana, p. 35) (Paltridge, 1971, p. 56).

Postulate 9 - A clear concept of roles, institutional and individual:

The clearer the roles the more the "commitment and investment of self" (Futchs, 1971, p. 9). To obtain a clear assessment of roles the suprasystems must honestly assess their own capabilities and the capabilities of the other collaborators (Davies & Aquino, 1975, p. 276).

It is likely that each of the component parts will have different viewpoints and interests. For example, in teacher education, institutions of higher education believe that they hold the primary leadership role because of their historic prominence. Teachers believe they should be the primary collaborators (a contradiction in terms) because of their practical, firing-line experience and knowledge.

School administrators feel that their responsibility for the accountability of what happens means they should have the primary role (Davies & Acquino).

However, in teacher education, every participant has a vital and indispensable role:

> The experience and knowledge which teachers gain in the classroom have important ramifications for research and development of continuing professional education programs which higher education institutions deliver. The laboratory research conducted by higher education institutions of teacher education is critical to the improvement of both K-12 education and teacher education. State departments and local school boards, as representatives of communities and consumers of education, have an important monitoring and evaluating role to play. (Davies & Acquino, p. 275)

It is important in the development of new collaborative settings that institutions and individuals guard against what Sarason (1971) calls "professional preciousness" (p. 37). Professional preciousness is the tendency for institutions and individuals to view their skills in precious kinds of ways, to overestimate the differences in skills among the professionals and to underestimate the need for communality. Sarason says that it is one thing to say that a profession has a specific set of skills and quite another to say that everything the profession does is distinctive and can stand alone (p. 37). Drucker warned of the same problem,over-specialization, in The Age of

Discontinuity (1969). He tells us that everyone depends upon somebody else "to make his output truly effective" (p. 382).

In order to collaborate effectively organizations must possess a theory of "interface" (South, 1974, p. 57), of freedom in common. There cannot be feelings of superiority and dependence in truly collaborative settings (p. 58). Rather, there must be an understanding of the interdependence and freedom of each of the component parts.

The individual participants in the new collaborative setting should clearly understand the roles they will fill. McGregor (1960) tells us that clarification is important in fulfilling the task (pp. 62-67). Unless the task is successfully completed there will be little opportunity for meeting individual potentiality (self-actualization).

A self-actualization person is one who is fitted for what he/she is doing. Self-actualization, Maslow (1970) tells us, is "what a man can be, he must be" (p. 46). Therefore, the assignment of individual roles should be based on "real capacity, competence, and adequacy to the task" (Maslow, p. 46).

One anthropologist claims that "First we discover who society says we are: Then we build our identity in performance in that part . . .To lose one's social credentials is to be exiled into oblivion" (Becker, 1962, p. 116). Therefore, it is important to place individuals in roles for which they are trained and suited. Richard Walton of Harvard Business School warns that the most difficult situation in a collaborative setting is that in which there is

competition and identity conflict (1972, pp. 94-111). Identity conflict means that the role assumed in collaboration is discrepant with the individual's wanted or existing identity. For example, casting a leader in a follower's role will provoke identity conflict. Becker also discusses the problems of identity conflict; he terms the problem "role-conflict" (1962, p. 87). Role conflict, Becker tells us, is the difficulty the individual has playing several disparate roles and at the same time attempting to maintain a consistent, satisfying self-perception. The leader cast as follower might be in a role-conflict position; the participant from a suprasystem not supportive of the new collaborative setting might also be cast in a role-conflict situation.

Identity (role) reinforcement, on the other hand, produces conditions where the participants derive feelings of trust. This "trust in turn enhances the accuracy of interpersonal communication and the willingness of one person to expose tentative ideas and judgments to another" (Walton, p. 105); both trust and communication are important aspects of collaboration. Under identity reinforcement conditions individuals derive gratification from and evidence commitment to the new collaborative setting. Likewise, they experience feelings of belongingness and self-esteem, as well as the potentiality of successfully filling a job for which they are suited (self-acutalization).

Postulate 10 - An understanding of the benefits of collaboration, institutional and individual:

"The principle of integration demands that both the organization's and the individual's needs be recognized. . .The assumptions of Theory

Y imply that unless integration is achieved the organization will suffer"(McGregor, pp. 51-52).

One of the most important requirements of successful collaboration is that each of the component parts (suprasystems) benefit from the new collaborative setting, and the collaboration be seen as the main reason for these increased benefits. Before this can occur each of the component parts must recognize that interdependencies exist (Tuite, 1972, p. 6), and without the other component parts they will most likely be less successful in realizing their objectives and mission. Likewise, each of the components must be motivated to act for the interest of the new setting, which,in turn, helps the suprasystems obtain their individual goals (p. 6). It may, therefore, be necessary for the suprasystems to redesign organizational structures, adjust behavioral conditions, and revise the reward-penalty system (p. 6). In short, the suprasystems must think in terms of the "universe of alternatives."

If,after the formation of the new setting,suprasystems continue to act independently in situations where interdependencies exist, the likelihood of increased benefits is slim. However, if the original settings begin to coordinate their decision-making action with the other components of the new set, a "collective good" may be realized (p. 11). If collaboration is to increase the benefits to all participants, "empires" cannot exist (Sarason, p. 9).

However, the collaborators in the new setting must always keep in mind that an organization will always strive to maintain its own domain when it is in interaction with other organizations (Warren,

1972, p. 22). Suprasystems will enter collaborative arrangements only if they are sure that their own domains will remain intact. If there is a threat to domain, real or imagined, the suprasystems will need inducement or coercion to participate, and under these arrangements collaboration will be ineffectual (p. 23).

Therefore, it is extremely important that the new setting establish its own domain, and that this domain only overlap with the domain of the original settings in areas where all the component parts (suprasystems) of the new setting will benefit. It will be necessary, however, for each suprasystem to understand the benefits of the new setting to the mission of the old. Some trade-offs will have to be made, some risks taken by the old settings to allow the new collaborative setting to reach its goals and thereby benefit the original settings. At times these benefits will not be immediately obvious. "Goals are interdependent only over the long run" (Walton, 1972, p. 108).

Multiple strategies for effecting these trade-offs must be carefully designed, understood, and accepted by each of the component parts (Howey, 1974, p. 1). The integrative potential of the new setting can only be realized through strategies of problem solving rather than bargaining (Walton, p. 96). Problem solving can only occur when, and to the extent that, the joint gain available to the components is variable, not fixed. "Thus, under problem solving, total payoffs vary as a function of participants' abilities to discover how their basic interests are complementary or coincidental as well as their abilities to invent mechanisms of exploiting this integrative potential"

(Walton, p. 96). When the joint gain available to the components is a fixed sum, bargaining is the result. In bargaining type decision making collaboration is impossible (Walton, pp. 101-103).

Only in problem solving relationships can collaboration occur. Therefore, problem solving is the only means by which the components can mutually benefit. In bargaining, on the other hand, where resources are fixed, there is a win-lose situation.

Problem solving requires that each component make its true needs and desires known within the new setting. Once these needs are understood it is possible for the new setting to determine the payoffs available to the components. Considerable effort must be expended in establishing these payoffs in the new joint setting. The collaborative setting must also attempt to coordinate its payoff system with the reward system of the component suprasystems (Tuite, p. 3). If this is not done, the institutions and the individual participants will be unable to benefit mutually from the collaborative setting. In collaborative settings, therefore, individual and joint payoffs are of interest (Tuite, p. 2).

Individual participants in collaborative settings should benefit from their participation in two ways: through direct rewards and indirect rewards.

The direct rewards are what Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman referred to as hygiene factors, those conditions which surround the job. Maslow refers to these factors as lower level needs, physiological and safety needs. These needs include such things as: interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, fair

policies and supervision, benefits, and job security. "When these factors deteriorate to a level below that which the employee considers acceptable, then job dissatisfaction ensues" (Herzberg et al., p. 113). Successful collaboration requires that these needs be met by the suprasystem and by the collaborative setting. It is extremely important that the role and goals of the new collaborative setting are such that the participants can successfully meet these needs within the suprasystem. Therefore, if promotion, for example, is obtained mainly through research and publication, it is important that the collaborative subsystem not frustrate the person's ability to meet this hygiene need. If the new collaborative setting can devise a mechanism to aid the participant in reaching this need, collaboration is more likely.

It is important that the collaborative setting produce benefits for its participants which are in direct proportion to the contribution they make (Ertell, 1957, p. 97). There must be visible and multiple incentives (Howey, 1974, p. 1). If, for example, a teacher participant devotes several hours a week to a collaborative effort, it is important that the fruits of this labor can be seen in the classroom. It is important also that the teacher see these benefits as directly relatable to the new cooperation.

According to McGregor (1960), rewards given on jobs, for the most part, can only be used away from the job (i.e.: wages). Most fringe benefits yield needed satisfaction only when the employee leaves the job (i.e.: increased vacation time). Work, thereby, is often perceived as the punishment which is the price paid for needs fulfillment away from the job (p. 40). It is important, therefore, that

new collaborative settings place increased emphasis on rewards that allow the participant to gain more satisfaction from the full-time job held within the suprasystem.

The Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman motivation and work study (1959) clearly indicates that the conditions which surround the job (hygiene factors - lower level needs) "cannot give. . .basic satisfaction; they do not have this potentiality. It is only from the performance of a task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce. . .aspirations" (p. 114). Similarly, this study shows that when workers were asked to describe those factors which give them feelings of happiness in their jobs they most often referred to "events that indicated to them that they were successful in the performance of their work, and the possibility of professional growth" (p. 113). Conversely, when feelings of unhappiness were reported, "they were not associated with the job itself but with the conditions that surround the job" (p. 113). McGregor (1960) reports that most management has provided for the physiological and safety needs (hygiene) of employees. Therefore, it is now important that the higher level needs be addressed. "Unless there are opportunities at work to satisfy these higher level needs, people will be deprived; and their behavior will reflect this deprivation" (p. 40).

The indirect rewards of the collaborative setting are the meeting of these higher level needs. In creating a setting "what one does to maximize in staff the sense of personal and professional growth" (Sarason, p. 82) is important for the individual participants, the goals of the new setting, and the mission of the suprasystems.

After the hygiene factors, lower level needs, have been met,

humans progress through the hierarchy of higher level needs. Maslow tells us that the three higher level needs include: belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization (potentiality). It is important to note that these needs, according to Maslow, are met in order. Therefore, if the basic hygiene needs (physiological and safety) are not being met it will be impossible for the individual to desire belongingness. Consequently, collaboration, if Maslow's theory is correct, will be impossible. John Dewey (Theory of valuation) and E. L. Thorndike (Human Nature and the Social Order) explain this phenomenon in terms of possibility. Humans, according to Dewey and Thorndike, yearn for that which can be obtained. Therefore, in terms of Maslow's theory, as a lower level need is met, fulfillment of the next higher level need will be sought. "Wanting anything in itself implies already existing satisfaction of other wants" (Maslow, p. 24). Further, Maslow tells us, that when higher needs emerge they dominate the person (p. 38). Therefore, once the physiological need for food has been met we no longer dwell on the thought of food. Rather, we move to the next higher need which dominates our thought.

The factors related to the doing of the job (higher level needs) and the factors defining the job context (hygiene) are the goals of the individual. However, the nature of the motivating qualities are essentially different. Job context factors meet the needs for avoiding unpleasant situations. The job factors, on the other hand, reward the needs to reach aspirations. Monetary incentives,hygiene factors, are ways to reward the avoidance need of individuals. Salary helps avoid deprivation and feelings of unfair treatment. However, when individuals are asked to list what they want from their jobs, salary usually

appears on the bottom half of the list (Herzberg, et. al., p. 116).

In encouraging self-fulfillment in individuals it is not enough to reward avoidance needs. Since most inter-institutional collaborative settings are unable to reward the avoidance, hygiene, or lower level needs, they must seek to reward the higher level needs, needs of belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization. One of the major benefits accrued by the institutions through participation in collaborative settings is the opportunity to give their employees a chance to fulfill their higher level needs, and by so doing feel more rewarded in their full-time positions. The Herzberg,et al study has clearly shown that if employees feel a sense of achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement they will be more successful in meeting the goals of the organization. Therefore, suprasystem commitment to and participation in collaborative settings can provide for employees the opportunity for self-actualization, rewarding the employer with better job attitudes.

McGregor tells us in Theory Y that a group provides the best environment for individual development. It allows the person to gain an understanding of his relationship to the other components in the group. Likewise, according to McGregor, it creates an appreciation of the need for collaboration. "It is the best possible training ground for skill in problem solving and social interaction" (p. 241). If the problem solving activities are successful they"tend to promote a sense of mutual accomplishment, self-worth and respect for each other's competence" (Walton, p. 100). Therefore, the individual will benefit by meeting the higher level needs of belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization. Likewise, the collaborative function will become

easier as the respect grows.

An important aspect of the self-actualized person is the feeling of being in charge of oneself. Paolo Freire (1971) believes that it is important for people to feel in charge of their own thinking, and they can gain this feeling through discussing their view of the world with others. Collaborative settings allow for this personal development.

Through carefully designed collaborative settings individuals have the opportunity to meet their higher level needs. The person, if the setting is carefully designed, can gain through participation feelings of belongingness, self-esteem, and finally self-actualization. A collaborative setting that allows the participants to consider themselves "object(s) of primary value" will give to these individuals a "sense of safe belongingness" (Becker, p. 91). Likewise, the realization of the "shared common goal" will enhance each of the participants' feelings of self-esteem (Nahrstedt, 1967). Through the satisfaction which derives from belonging and a sense of self the individual will gain feelings of potentiality, working in a job for which he/she is suited.

Postulate 11 - The careful appointment of a director and staff:

Often collaborative settings require the appointment of directors and staff to carry on the administrative functions of the setting. The importance of these appointments cannot be overemphasized; "the beginning context is fateful for what comes later" (Sarason, p. 63).

The appointment of a director and staff comes late in the developmental process of the new collaborative setting. Many people have been engaged in its organization for many months or even years prior to the appointment of the director. For example, in Florida

the discussions about some form of collaboration in education can be traced to the late 1960s. The legislation which created this collaboration, however, was in the spring of 1973. Shortly after the legislation was passed, the Department of Education asked universities and school districts to design collaboratively a plan for Teacher Education Centers. The Department selected ten programs to begin in September, 1973. Therefore, several years of discussion and several months of planning passed before the first Center director was appointed. It is extremely important, therefore, that the director be aware of the prehistory that antedated the appointment. "Before you start shaping the future you had better know and deal with the past" (Sarason, p. 63).

Most often the new setting is designed to be innovatively different from those settings which make up its component parts. It is usually assumed that the new system will "fit in" to the suprasystems and that it will not intrude on the existing domains (Sarason, p. 64). The director is often hired from one of the component parts of the new system. The previous position of the director may affect his/her ability to deal with the original employer as well as the other components.

The director must be committed to the idea of collaboration. Likewise, the individual must understand and uphold the goals of the new setting as well as the objectives of each of the suprasettings. The director must use Theory Y as the basic mode of operation. This individual must not look upon the new setting as belonging to him/her. Possession of the new setting by the director can be devastating for two reasons: (1) The person will feel responsible for the successes and failures of the setting, thereby undermining the concept of

collaboration which requires joint responsibility and joint accountability. (2) The person will build up boundaries around the setting, forcing the setting into the position of becoming a prisoner of the start. (See Postulate 6)

The staff, likewise, must understand the prehistory of the new setting, be aware of allegiance or dependence upon an employer who may be one of the component parts, be committed to the principals of collaboration, and work toward reaching the mission of the suprasystems through the goals of the collaborative setting.

Postulate 12 - The development of a mechanism for conflict resolution:

A system of conflict management can provide increased opportunity for creative collaboration. Conflict, handled within a specific, carefully designed mechanism,can be collaborative and encourage trust which will further future collaboration. What is needed is an "arena" and "procedures in which conflicts can surface and be constructively continued or resolved" (Tanner, 1974, p. 1).

The conflict which can be most destructive to collaboration is interpersonal conflict. Richard Walton (1969) defines interpersonal conflict as: "(a) interpersonal disagreements over substantive issues, such as differences over organizational structures, policies, and practices, and (b) interpersonal antagonisms, that is, the more personal and emotional differences which arise between interdependent human beings" (p. 2).

McGregor (1960) points out that organizational "health does not flow automatically from elimination of dissatisfaction, disagreement or even open conflict. Peace is not synonymous with organizational health"

(p. 46). As a matter of fact, "interpersonal differences, competition, rivalry, and other forms of conflict [can] have a positive value for the participants" and contribute to collaboration (Walton, p. 5). Conflict, according to Walton, may: (1) increase innovation because of the diversity of ideas, (2) increase motivation to tasks, (3) aid participants in developing increased understanding of their own position, (4) help participants gain increased awareness of their own identity, and (5) be a means of helping the participants manage their own inner conflict (p. 5).

If interpersonal conflict is to have a positive value, however, it is important that channels for confrontation be open. Flynn (1976) discovered that "as it [became] legitimate to surface conflict and deal with it, we. . .found more conflict to deal with" (p. 178).

> Confrontation means, according to Walton, that:
> The parties directly engage each other and focus on the conflict between them. . . .The various purposes of such an interpersonal confrontation [are]: to increase authenticity in the relationship and to allow the principals to experience a sense of increased personal integrity; to increase their mutual commitment to improve the relationship; to actually diagnose the conflict; to increase the principals' sense of control over the quality of their relationship; to discover and experiment with ways of de-escalating the conflict. (pp. 6-7)

Conflict involving disagreements over policies, etc. is called, according to Walton, <u>substantive</u> issue conflict. <u>Emotional</u> conflict

requires "a restructuring of a person's perception and the working through of feelings between the principals" (Walton, p. 75). Substantive conflict is primarily of a cognitive nature, while emotional is basically affective (Walton, p. 75).

It may also be important in designing confrontation mechanisms to understand the different ways in which men and women deal with substantive and emotional conflict. "The manners women bring with them [to the group setting] are those of. . .a society whose members are bent on the maintenance of relationships for they are the most immediate definition of who one is. Relationships for women tend to be ends in themselves. . .As a result, and without even knowing it, women tend to fall into the great trap of 'overemotionalism' . . . or a painful vulnerability to criticism" (Hennig & Jardim, p. 33). Consequently, if the Hennig-Jardim study is correct, it is more difficult for women to separate substantive from emotional conflict; all conflicts tend to take on an emotional nature. Therefore, it may be important to handle most conflicts between women or involving women as if they are primarily emotional in nature.

Walton suggests several key concepts in dealing with confrontation: (1) It is important to select the right time and place for confronting the conflict. (2) "For a particular interpersonal conflict, some events will trigger conflict tactics which initiate a malevolent cycle and others trigger conflict-resolution efforts which have higher potential for initiating a benevolent cycle. Diagnosing a particular conflict involves distinguishing between these types of circumstances" (p. 79). (3) An analysis of the events which precede or surround the conflict may provide clues regarding the basic issues. (4) Conflicts

have various barriers (i.e.: group norms, task requirements, personal concept, public image, perception of vulnerability, fear that overture won't be reciprocated, and physical barriers to interaction). The frequency of conflict encounters may be controlled by operating on these barriers (Walton, pp. 76-79).

A determination of which issues are basic and which are symptomatic is important in diagnosing the conflicts. (1) At times an individual may substitute a substantive for an emotional conflict to make it appear to be more legitimate. (2) Likewise, symptomatic issues may be so embarrassing, for example, that the individual may introduce a similar issue to avoid the embarrassment. (3) Substantive issues, on the other hand, may develop from emotional conflict which is not confronted. (4) The conflict may be escalated by a substantive issue so that the individual can be on the offensive. (5) In self-defense an individual may add another issue in an attempt to cope with the consequences of the primary conflict (Walton, pp. 84-87).

> The potential costs and benefits of interpersonal conflict include those that affect each of the participants personally (in psychological and career terms), their work, and others around them, including colleagues, superiors, and subordinates. These costs can accrue from merely knowing that one is in an antagonistic relationship, from the manifest tactics of the other and of oneself, and from the reactions of nonparticipants to the conflict. Included in the costs of conflict are the missed opportunities for creative collaboration. (Walton, p. 79)

Postulate 13 - The importance of an external critic:

One way to help the confrontation of conflict is by initiating a policy which will require that an external critic become part of the new collaborative setting. The external critic may be a single person or a group. The critic, because of its removal from the situation, can aid in the diagnosis of the basic issues involved in the conflict.

Concomitantly, the critic can serve several functions equally as important as conflict resolution. Sarason warns that every new setting begins with a certain amount of excitement, a sense of mission. However, as the pressures of forming a new setting increase, the invigorating climate begins to change. It becomes difficult for the participants to view the new setting in even a semi-objective way. The external critic can stand back from the setting and examine the relation between its practices and its objectives. The critic, Sarason says, is a way "to keep us honest" (p. 43).

Alfred Schutz (1964), an anthropologist, calls this external critic "the stranger." The stranger, according to Schutz, is able to place all the unquestionable items in question. Basic assumptions and ideas taken for granted by the collaborative setting are not shared by this person or group. Because the stranger is able to question even the most basic assumptions the collaborative group members are able to "reflect upon what they have taken for granted, to understand its limited applicability, and to realize that no single truth exists" (Greene, 1974, p. 92). The stranger can point to the validity of the various ways of interpreting ideas, thereby helping to minimize conflict, and continue the excitement of innovation found in the early stages of the setting's development.

Postulate 14 - The importance of resource and political reallocation:

Interagency collaboration requires "either the abdication of power by those who now hold it or a process of political infighting and compromise by those who don't"(Morgan, p. 187). Since the second alternative is not conducive to collaboration, resource and political reallocation is necessary for successful collaboration.

Walton tells us that there are several problems working against reallocation: (1) Knowing that goals are interdependent over the long run does not provide a compelling reason for collaborating today. (2) There are no absolute costs associated with the failure to collaborate. The only costs are opportunity costs. (3) Interagency relations take more bureaucratic time and contain the high risk of increased visibility. (4) The gains are seldom symmetrical. (5) Unfavorable stereotypes of some of the component parts may leave others afraid of contamination (pp. 108-109).

If collaboration is to be successful, the following reallocations of resources must exist: (1) Accurate, dependable information must be available from each of the component parts to the collaborative setting (Nahrstedt, 1967). (2) Part of the current resources of each of the component parts must be devoted to the learning of new roles and new ways of working together (Hite & Drummond, p. 134). (3) The setting must be free of legal, political, and financial constraints which prohibit collaboration (Hite & Drummond, p. 134). (4) Sufficient administrative time must be devoted,by the component parts,to the new setting (Paltridge,1971, p. 54). (5) There must be an adequate financial base (Paltridge, pp. 50-65). (6) A cooperative funding plan

which encourages collaboration must be adopted. These funds should be obtained through a dual and parallel funding channel (State Council for TEC, 1974, p. 8). (7) Appropriate start-up funds should be provided (State Council, p. 8). (8) All component parts should be included as early as the proposal writing stage of the setting (Futchs, 1971). (9) No one group should control the purse strings (Futchs). (10) New rewards and penalties must be established by each of the component parts for the participants (Florida Teacher Education Centers, 1977, p. 17).

Postulate 15 - The total involvement of all components:

One of the first requirements of any new collaborative setting is the identification of a "representation that is appropriate to the particular structure or function" (Tanner, 1974). The more people with different viewpoints involved, the larger the pool of resources and ideas (Walton, 1972, p. 103). Similarly, the more people involved in the development activities, the larger the commitment to the idea and the more significant the support base (Howsam, 1974, p. 21).

One of the interesting new collaborative settings currently being developed is Teacher Education Centers. These centers are collaborations between components interested in teacher education, pre and inservice, and improvement in public school classroom instruction. Most often these new centers involve teachers, school administrators, and university college of education personnel. A large minority also involve students and community representatives (Schmieder & Yarger, 1974). Some involve board of education members and representatives from state departments of education. Few, if any, however, involve representatives from the university arts and science faculties.

The historical precedent and prodding from scholars (Bigelow, 1971)

(Clark, 1975) (Howsam, 1974) (Silberman, 1970) (Woodring, 1975) interested in the movement has encouraged the broader involvement of university personnel; but few, if any, have taken the lead. Silberman warned that teaching must be placed at the heart of the liberal arts curriculum. Teaching, according to Silberman, is what liberal education is about. He quotes the University of Chicago catalogue and its description of liberal arts: "we do endeavor to bring each student. . .to a point beyond which he can educate himself" (p. 381).

As recently as 1970 the United States Office of Education (USOE) helped fund the program Trainers of Teacher Trainers (TTT). This program brought together school systems, communities, colleges of education, and colleges of arts and science. Bigelow's report of the TTT Phoenix Conference (1970) is an attempt to "help merge liberal arts education with professional (teacher) education" (book jacket).

Earlier attempts to merge academic pursuits with education occurred in the 1950s. In the late 1950s and in 1960 three conferences were held by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS). These conferences involved the cooperation of academicians and teacher educators. The conferences agreed that liberal arts training must be the basis for teacher education. After these conferences most major colleges and universities developed interdepartmental committees on teacher education. However, within a decade most of them were defunct.

The importance of the colleges and departments of arts and science as participants in collaboration cannot be overemphasized. Secondary teacher education students take only 20 percent of their course work in colleges or departments of education; elementary education majors spend

only 40 percent of their course time in the college of education. Therefore, the colleges of arts and science are responsible for 60 to 80 percent of the instruction of future teachers, whereas colleges of education are only responsible, on an average, for 33 percent of the future teachers' classroom time. This means that most students spend the majority of higher education classroom time in the courses of those academicians least familiar with the public school systems. The colleges of arts and science have more of the responsibility for educating teachers than the colleges of education (Clark, 1975). Therefore, arts and science participation in the collaborative setting would be beneficial for two reasons: (1) To help the segments of the higher education community better understand the concerns and missions of each other. (2) To broaden the support base for teacher education and the new collaborative effort.

A broadening of the support base for teacher education is extremely important if there is to be a reallocation of rewards in the university community which encourages participation in the new collaborative effort. "Teacher training is a low prestige, low cost venture in almost all institutions of higher education" (Clark, p. 57). Sagan and Smith (1973) call teacher education the "stepchild" of the university (p. 416). They also warn us that there is a discrepancy between the needs of teacher education and the reward system of the universities.

> If one considers the reward system in the larger and more prestigious institutions of higher education and its impact upon the career development of the arts and science professor, it would be difficult to conclude

> that teacher training has been, is, or is likely to be, a central concern to arts and science professorial personnel. In almost all institutions the professor is obliged to exhibit his expertise through independent inquiry. Status is attached to the instruction of advanced graduate students. National recognition is provided through and controlled by professional associations committed to the professor's academic discipline. (Clark, p. 59)

Similarly, rewards are given to the majority of faculty on the university campuses for research, publication, and academic standing. When a faculty member of the college of education is reviewed by university promotion and tenure committees his/her service to the public schools is not considered equal to the academic pursuits of the academic colleagues.

Another group which must be included in the new teacher education collaborative setting is the community (Howsam, 1974) (Nahrstedt, 1967) (Sarason, 1971) (Smith, 1974). The reasons for their inclusion are parallel to the reasons for the arts and science faculty inclusion. (1) Their viewpoints and expertise can add to the endeavors of the new settings and help the collaboration reach its goals. (2) The involvement of the community should broaden the support base for education in general and the new collaborative effort specifically. Studies have shown that when people become involved in a project through participation

in shared decision-making they are more likely to exhibit feelings of self-fulfillment and commitment to the goals of the project (Herzberg, et al., 1959) (Maslow, 1970) (McGregor, 1960). If the feeling of esteem on the part of general public increases toward school, it is likely that education will improve.

> The esteem in which the general public holds teachers and schooling has a profound influence upon what the teachers learn in the course of their professional education, how they teach in school, and especially upon what their students learn. (Cogan, 1975, p. 204)

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